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ABSTRACT

This booklet has been assembled in order to provide students of Italian with a compact source of cultural information on their target area. Chapters include discussion of: (1) introduction to Italian; (2) origins of the Italian population; (3) geography; (4) history including the Roman Era, the Middle Ages, the Renaissance, the "Risorgimento," and Contemporary Italy; (5) the Italian Armed Forces; and (6) Special Branches of the Italian Army. (RL)

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I T A L I A N

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PREFACE

This booklet has been assembled in order to provide students of Italian with a compact source of information on their target area.

While many of the topics presented here are covered in Italian during the course, the Area Background Information will be discussed in detail during the last phase of the course, after the students have become familiar with it through this booklet and other Defense Language Institute publications.

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INTRODUCTION TO ITALIAN

General

Italian is the language spoken by approximately 55 million people in Italy, by over 200,000 inhabitants of the Canton Ticino in Switzerland and by rather large numbers of people of Italian birth or origin residing in the United States and in Latin American countries.

Italian is one of the Romance Languages. It is the direct descendent of the Latin spoken by the Romans and by the people of Roman occupied territories. This spoken Latin was quite different from the Latin of literature, in that its structure and vocabulary were greatly influenced by the pre-Roman languages it displaced. These local varieties of Latin later became dialects. What is known as standard Italian was, in fact, one such dialect, Florentine, raised to a prestigious position by such men as Dante and Boccaccio. Standard Italian and the dialects continue to coexist to this day, but increased education, development of means of communication, radio and television have spread the use of Standard Italian throughout Italy. The number of speakers of dialects is becoming smaller and smaller and they are now almost exclusively elderly and non-urban people.

Writing

Italian is written in the Roman alphabet. With the exception of a few writing conventions, Italian is written almost as it sounds. A speaker of English must, however, keep in mind that Italian letters do not always represent the same sounds as in English.

Sounds

In Italian there are seven vowel sounds, represented in writing by only five letters: a, e, i, o, u. Regardless of their position, Italian vowels never change their quality, nor are they immediately followed by a glide sound as in English. Italian consonant sounds are not difficult to master, provided the learner is made aware that they require a different positioning of the speech organs. Certain consonant groups must be learned which have no equivalent in English.

Grammar

As far as the grammar of Italian is concerned, the following points should be kept in mind:

1. Basically, Italian follows the subject-verb-object pattern, as does English.

2. Articles agree in gender and number with the nouns to which they refer.

3. Italian nouns are masculine or feminine and can be

made plural by changing the last vowel. The majority of nouns follow a pattern by which it is possible to determine gender and number.

4. Descriptive adjectives agree in gender and number with the noun they modify and generally follow it. Possessive adjectives agree in gender and number with the thing possessed. Demonstrative, indefinite and interrogative adjectives also agree in gender and number with the noun to which they refer and they precede it.

5. The verb has different endings, depending on person, tense, and aspect. Many verbs are used with reflexive pronouns.

6. Subject pronouns are usually omitted because the personal endings of the verb form is enough to identify the subject. Object pronouns generally precede the verb form.

Helpful Hints

Much of language learning is imitation. It is suggested that students mimic the instructor's pronunciation, intonation, gestures and even facial expressions as closely as possible.

Since the dialogues are the core of the daily lesson units, they should be memorized well and recited with the same naturalness with which they were introduced.

Do not try to solve learning problems in Italian using the skills of English or any other language you may have had.

ORIGINS OF THE ITALIAN POPULATION

The Italian people possess a quick, lively intelligence and an impulsive, sentimental, generous character. Various stocks have contributed to their ethnical formation, particularly the dark Mediterranean type (the dolichocephalic) and the fair alpine (the brachycephalic types), both common Indo-European stock. A notable contribution also came, as far as the western regions of Central Italy are concerned, from the mysterious Etruscan people and from the Greeks along the Ionic and Mediterranean coasts. Finally, Rome imposed her physiognomy on all these peoples, unifying the language, customs and juridical institutions.

The Italian language, spoken today throughout the nation, is derived from Latin and acquired the complete dignity of a true language in the 14th century, through the works of the great Florentine poets and writers: Dante, Petrarch, Boccaccio. However, the first documents in the "vulgar" tongue go back many centuries.

There are some small minorities of foreign language groups living on Italian territory. The first group includes the German-speaking Italian citizens in Alto-Adige and the Slavs of Friuli-Venetia Julia, who have the legal right to use their language of origin as well as Italian. The second group in-

cludes some small ethnical minorities with languages or dialects which are non-Italian, such as the communities of Slav origin in some parts of the Eastern Alps, the communities of Albanian origin in some places in Campania, Basilicata, Calabria and in Sicily, and the communities of Greek origin in some parts of Apulia and Calabria. A dialect very similar to Catalan is spoken at Alghero, in Sardinia, while in Piedmont and the Aosta Valley there are dialects of Franco-Provencal origin.

The regional dialects are full of variety, each one has its own characteristics and, in some cases, even its own traditions, very often of importance in the history of Italian literature.

The Roman Catholic religion is practiced by almost the whole of the Italian population, and it is the State religion recognized by the Constitution. The Vatican City is its official center and the Pope is its head. But the Italian Constitution also recognizes the right to practice and proselytize other religious faiths within the territory of the Republic, as long as they do not contrast with law and order or with national institutions. There is a total of 160,000 non-Catholic Italian citizens, of whom 83,618 are Protestants (for the great part Valdesian of the Pellice and Cisone Valleys

in Piedmont). There are, in addition, 50,000 Jews and small communities professing the Greek Orthodox religion amo[illegible] the ethnical minorities of the Greek, Albanian and Slav languages.

In comparison with the small number of non-Italians living in Italy, about 10 million Italians are at present living outside their homeland. For the most part they are emigrants who have left Italy in search of work. About 4 million are now in the United States and of these more than 1 mi[illegible]lion in the city of New York alone. Another 2 million li[illegible]e in Brazil. About the same number lives in Argentina, and roughly a million in France. These are the main groups of Italians living abroad, but there is hardly a country in which a community does not exist. About 200,000 live in Canada, a like number in Belgium and Uruguay, 160,000 in Switzerland, 100,000 in Tunisia, 50,000 in Egypt. More than 1,000,000 Italians work in Germany, France and Switzerland.

GEOGRAPHY

Italy, with its characteristic shape of a boot, is situated almost in the center of the Mediterranean Sea, and is surrounded to the West and South by various islands. It has an area of about 116,237 square miles.

It should be recalled, however, that the peninsula contains two tiny independent sovereign states: the Republic of San Marino (23.5 square miles) and Vatican City (526,240 square yards).

To the North, Italy's frontiers coincide with those of France, Switzerland, Austria and Yugoslavia. From Central Europe, the Italian peninsula extends in a southernly direction to the Mediterranean Sea, and has about 5,280 miles of coastline. On the West, it is separated from Spain and Portugal, Sicily and Sardinia by the Tyrrhenian Sea, and, from the Balkan peninsula on the East by the long and narrow Adriatic Sea. Only 43 miles separate Italy from Albania; and Sicily, its huge island appendage, is about 90 miles away from North Africa, separated by the Tunisian Channel.

Because of its geographical position, Italy is known as the "Queen of the Mediterranean". However, its strategic, economic and political value as a center of Mediterranean trade in the Middle Ages had been greatly diminished after the dis-

covery of America in 1492 and the consequent shift of the world's traffic to the Atlantic Ocean. With the opening of the Suez Canal in 1869, the growth of transcontinental rail communications, and the later development of air traffic, Italy regained some of its earlier economic importance.

Subdivisions and Regions of the Italian Peninsula

In the North, the peninsula is clearly outlined by the Alps, which form its natural boundary. However, there are a number of passes, through which roads or tunnels have been built, assuring good communications with Italy's neighbors. Thus, direct lines of communication with Switzerland and France run through the Ventimiglia and Mont Cenis Passes and the great Frejus and Simplon Tunnels, and with Austria through the Brenner and the Tarvisio Passes. The Mont Blanc tunnel (7.4 miles) between Entreves in Italy and Chamonix in France, and the Saint Bernard Tunnel (3.18 miles) between Italy and Switzerland, have recently reached completion.

Northern Italy is formed by the internal slopes of the Alps and the great alluvial plain inside the Alpine arc, with the River Po at its center. The rest of the peninsula is surrounded by the Mediterranean Sea, which takes the names of the various stretches of the coasts which it touches, to become the Ligurian Sea, the Tyrrhenian Sea, the Ionian Sea and

the Adriatic Sea. This part of Italy is known as "peninsular Italy" and is divided into Central and Southern regions.

There are eight regions in Northern Italy: Piedmont, Val d'Aosta, Liguria, Lombardy, Trentino-Alto Adige, Venetia Euganea, Friuli-Venetia Julia and Emilia-Romagna. They are the richest and most densely populated regions of Italy, since they are favored by hydroelectric resources, fertile land and a fine network of communications.

Central Italy has four regions: Tuscany, the Marches, Umbria and Latium. It is of an essentially mountainous character with a mixed type of economy, industrial and agricultural. These regions saw the dawn of Italian civilization, first in ancient Etruria (Tuscany) and then in Rome. Today they still preserve the signs of ancient and Renaissance splendor. Owing to the configuration of the land and the absence of great plains, these regions do not have the industrial character of the northern regions, although a great deal of progress has been made in the past few years.

Southern and Insular Italy includes seven regions: Abruzzo, Molise, Campania, Apulia, Basilicata, Calabria, Sicily and Sardinia. These are regions of pre-Roman civilization, densely populated (with the exception of Basilicata and Sardinia), and, up to a few years ago, quite detached from modern industrial

development because of geographical and historical conditions.

The major islands are: Sicily (9,815 square miles), Sardinia (9,190 square miles), Elba (86 square miles), known for its ferrous minerals, but perhaps better known as the scene of Napoleon's first exile (1814-15). Smaller, but famous the world over, at least to tourists, are Capri and Ischia in the Gulf of Naples. More recently, much has been done to exploit the tourist attraction of the Pontine Islands, Maddalena and Caprera, north of Sardinia, Ustica and the Aeolian Islands (Lipari, Stromboli, etc.), the Egadi islands near the southwest coast of Sicily, Pantelleria in the Tunisian Channel, and the Tremiti Islands in the Adriatic.

Rivers and Mountains

Italy, with the natural barrier of the Alps in the North, is divided along the entire length of the peninsula by the Apennine chain that, reappearing on the other side of the sea, continues in Sicily. In Sardinia the mountain system has features closely analogous to those in the neighboring Corsica.

The Italian Alps, including the highest and famous year-round snow-covered, glacier-studded peaks, descend sharply westward toward the Italian plains but slope gradually in the center and to the east to form a chain of smaller mountains known as the pre-Alps.

The main peaks of the Italian Alps are: Monviso (3,841 meters), source of the River Po, Mont Blanc (4,810 meters), the highest mountain in Europe, the Gran Paradise Group (4,081 meters), Mont Rose (4,638 meters), Cervino (4,482 meters) and the Bernina group (4,052 meters).

The Dolomites are famous the world over for their peaks, which rise like isolated white towers above the green fields and forests.

The Eastern Alps, lower than the others and with more gradual slopes, include the "Vetta d'Italia", the extreme northern point of Italian territory, and dominate the desolate Carso, that was the theater of heavy battles during the First World War.

In spite of their great height, the Alps have an abundance of passes through which run excellent road and rail communications.

The Apennine chain joins the Alps at Col di Cadibona in Liguria. It forms the backbone of the peninsula and includes the mountains of Sicily. The system has a mid-section and two flanks, known as the Tyrrhenian pre-Apennines and the Adriatic pre-Apennines, and it is in the form of an arc.

The Apennine chain may be sub-divided into four cross sections: the Northern, Central, Southern and Sicilian Apennines.

The mountains of the central system are the highest of the whole chain, culminating in Abruzzo with Mount Corno (2,914 meters) on the massive Gran Sasso.

The Sicilian Apennines include, on the east, the largest volcano in Europe, Mt. Etna (3,295 meters), which dominates the Catania plain from the north.

The Adriatic pre-Apennines start in Apulia with the Gargano, and stretch as far as Serre del Salento. The Tyrrhenian Apennines form the outer ridges of Tuscany, Latium and Campania and include Mt. Vesuvius.

In the north the Apennines are in the form of parallel chains, but in the south they change to a succession of high plateaus and massive peaks. The most famous of these is the Sila in Calabria. The Apennines, too, are crossed by numerous roads and railway lines.

Sardinia has an irregular chain of peaks which reaches a maximum height of 1,834 meters in the Gennargentu group.

Seventy-five per cent of Italy is composed of mountain systems which leave little room for plains, of which the largest and most important is the Po Valley.

It is crossed by the Po River and by the lower reaches of the Venetian rivers and fans out to the Adriatic Sea. Rich in water, and crossed by numerous rivers, it is the most fertile zone in Italy.

Other plains, of minor importance and size, almost all on the coast, are the Tavoliere delle Puglie, the Salento (between the Ionian and Adriatic Seas), those of Sybaris in the Bay of Taranto, the Marchesato on the Ionian coast of Campania, the Roman "Agro", the Tuscan Maremma, and the lower Valdarno. In the islands we find the plain of Catania and the Conca d'Oro (or the "Golden Shell") in Sicily, and the Campidano in Sardinia.

Italy, notoriously poor in lowlands, also lacks large rivers. The largest Italian river is the Po, which has its source on Monviso and has a length of approximately 405 miles, flowing into the Adriatic Sea. The silt carried by the Po and its tributaries from the mountains has raised the bed of the river in its lower reaches to such an extent that in many places it is higher than the surrounding plain. Although the banks of the river have been built up and reinforced, the waters often break through to flood the countryside.

The major tributaries of the Po River, after flowing down from the Alps, form various sized and highly picturesque lakes. The River Ticino forms Lake Maggiore, the Adda forms Lake Como and the Sarca forms Lake Garda (143 square miles), the largest lake in Italy. The Sarca as it leaves the lake, becomes the River Mincio. The tributaries which join the Po from the Apennine range are, for the most part, torrents; the most important

of these is the Panaro.

Other rivers which cross the plain, in the Venetian area are the Adige, second most important river in Italy (254 miles), whose mouth is at a short distance from that of the Po, the Piave, the Tagliamento, the Isonzo and the Recca. This last river, in crossing the Carso zone, goes underground for many miles, rising only near its mouth with the name of Timavo.

In the peninsular region, the rivers are much shorter; especially those running into the Adriatic Sea, which are primarily torrents. The longest rivers which have their source in the Apennines run into the Tyrrhenian Sea. They are the Arno (149 miles), which flows through Florence and Pisa, Rome's historical River Tiber (252 miles) and the Garigliano and Volturno which cross the Campania plains.

The chief rivers in the islands are, the Simeto in Sicily, and the Tirso in Sardinia.

The lakes of the peninsula region are, for the most part, old volcanic craters. Lake Trasimenus (49 square miles) is an exception. Smaller but not less picturesque than the Alpine lakes, they have characteristics of their own, particularly in relation to their shape, which is nearly always that of a funnel. The lakes of Bolsena, Bracciano, Albano and Nemi are all within a short distance of Rome.

Climate

The warm climate and clear skies of Italy are famous world-wide. The Alpine ridge protects the peninsula from North winds, while the surrounding seas help to temper summer heat and winter cold. On the other hand, it should not be thought that the Italian climate is the same everywhere. Indeed, owing to the great length of the peninsula, passing through about 12 degrees of latitude, there is a considerable difference between the climate in the north of the country and that of the south and the islands.

The snow lies for many months on the Alps and pre-Alps and rain falls in autumn and spring. In the Venetian part of the Po plain the cold lasts for four months, while on the Ligurian coastal areas, Istria, and near the lakes, the climate is much warmer, even in winter. Warmer still is the climate of Sicily and the coastal area around Naples, even in December and January.

Such climatic differences favor great variety in vegetation. The Alps and Apennines are covered with huge fir, spruce, chestnut and oak forests. The coastal regions are characterized by their thick, evergreen shrubs of broom, junipers, laurel, myrtle, wild olives, oleanders and citrus fruits, while further south there are prickly pears and agaves. Magnificent Mediter-

ranean pine forests form green islands along the Adriatic coast (The Ravenna Pine Wood) and the Tyrrhenian coast from Viareggio to Rome.

Fauna, which is protected in several National Parks, includes chamois, wild goats and deer in the Alps, wolves and foxes in the Apennines (sometimes even bear), deer and wild sheep in Sardinia, wild boar in the Tuscan Maremma and Calabria and semi-wild buffalo in the countryside between Rome and Naples. Birds are numerous, both stable and migratory. Occasionally the slow, majestic eagle can be seen as it flies among the peaks of the Alps and the Apennines, where falcons also live in large numbers.

HISTORY

The Roman Era

In Italy, Greek and Etruscan civilizations preceded that of Rome; Greek civilization spread throughout Sicily, the Gulf of Tarantum and Campania, while Etruscan civilization extended to the whole of Central Italy and the Po Valley. Greek cities included Naples, Cumae, Zancle (Messina), Taormina, Catania, Syracuse, Agrigentum, Tarantum Sybaris, Croton, Locri and Regium, while Capua, Pompei, Perugia, Tarquinia, Bologna and Mantua were Etruscan. Rome had not yet been founded. According to popular belief, it owes its origins to navigators who landed at the mouth of the Tiber (Romulus and Remus were supposedly descendants of the Troyan hero Aeneas). In all probability, Rome was actually founded by groups of Latins from Albalonga who settled on the Palatine.

History records the establishment of Rome in 753 B.C. by Romulus, son of a king of Albalonga (a city near Lake Albano), who became its first King after killing his brother and populating the city with outlaws and women abducted (according to legend) from the Sabines. Romulus was followed by six other kings. Then in the year 509 B.C., the Romans forced Tarquinius the Proud from the throne and proclaimed a republic. Historians

attribute definite achievements to each of the kings and, therefore, the periods in which they reigned can no longer be considered legendary.

Under the kings, Rome fought several victorious wars but did not begin to expand. The kings were vested with military, judicial, and religious powers, and were assisted by a council of elders, known as the Senate. The people were originally divided into two classes, the patricians and plebeians, and into three tribes comprising ten curiae. Committees formed by the curiae elected the king. The next-to-the-last king of Rome, Servius Tullius, is said to have been responsible for a reform which divided the people into five classes, based on the riches of the individual families. By acquiring more wealth, it was possible to advance from one class to another. The basis of the system, however, was the family, and the families gathered together in blood groups formed the gentes, or clans.

After the fall of the monarchy, the Romans were governed by two Consuls elected from year to year. These exercised primarily executive powers, while legislative powers were in the hands of the Senate which, in the event of extreme danger, could elect a dictator for a period not exceeding six months. A Praetor was responsible for passing judgment upon quarrels between citizens, while the Courts of the Plebeians, created

in 494 B.C., with their veto power prevented abuse by the legislative, executive and judicial branches of government. In 451 B.C., it was decided to compile written laws valid for both patricians and plebeians. These were known as the "Twelve Tables" and are the basis of Roman law. At the beginning of the third century B.C., there was no longer any difference between patricians and plebeians; for some time the latter had enjoyed the privilege of becoming consuls (from 366 B.C.) and they could marry women belonging to the patrician class (from 444 B.C.). Rome had become a democratic republic, but this internal evolution was obtained at the price of civil struggles. However, this did not interfere with the external expansion of the city, which united when danger threatened.

At the beginning of the fourth century B.C. Rome was the ruling city of Latium, having vanquished all the neighboring peoples and beaten back (in 387 B.C.) a dangerous invasion by the Senonian Gauls. The Samnites were its first and strongest adversaries in three wars lasting for a period of fifty years. Then came the turn of Tarantum, which called for the help of a foreign state, Epirus, whose king, Pyrrhus, was initially successful in overcoming the Romans by using elephants. But eventually he was completely defeated. With the conquest of Tarantum, the Romans, at the beginning of the 4th century B.C., found themselves masters of all of Italy, from the Marches and

Tuscany to Calabria. Not only did they prove themselves to be masters in the art of war, but they also succeeded in administering the conquered regions wisely, gradually conceding them political and civil rights.

Having reached the Straits of Messina, Rome now clashed with the might of Carthage, situated along that part of the North African coast which today belongs to Tunisia. At that time, Carthage possessed a large part of Sicily. The Carthaginians were sailors and merchants and they tried in vain to transform themselves into land troops to defeat Rome. But Rome, which was a state of soldiers and farmers, was also able to make itself strong on the seas, and in the space of a hundred years — after three cycles of war— managed to destroy completely its rival (146 B.C.). In this period, the Roman Republic lived some very critical moments, especially during the Second Punic War when Hannibal, a valiant Carthaginian general, led his army over the Alps and more than once defeated the Romans. But Hannibal was not successful in inducing the Italian cities to rise against Rome. Tired, his supply routes cut, he was finally defeated at Zama by a Roman army under Scipio Emilianus, who destroyed the enemy army. In the interval between the second and the third Punic Wars, Rome turned to the conquest of the East, protecting the weaker powers against the powerful kingdoms of Macedonia and Syria and finally

overcoming both. By the end of the second century B.C., its dominion was unchallenged. Rome extended along the Mediterranean coasts, from Spain to Africa, to the Eastern Adriatic, Greece, Asia Minor and Syria, while in Italy it had already taken possession of the Po Valley (Cisalpine Gaul) and all the islands.

After this era of continuous victories, Rome went through a period of internal disorder and bloody struggles between the aristocracy and the people. The victorious wars and conquests had only served to make the rich more powerful. The people, guided by the "tribunes", sought to obtain a division of the arable lands. An "agrarian law" was promised, but the two tribunes who fought for it, Tiberius and Caius Graccus, were both killed in street fighting.

The internal struggles were influenced by the external wars. Consuls who had commanded victorious armies sought to impose their authority within the Republic, now favoring the people, now the aristocracy. The defense of the frontiers made permanent armies necessary, and this furnished military commanders the instrument necessary to satisfy their ambition for power. The clash between the factions inevitably brought an end to the democratic Republic and the advent of empire, after a century of civil strife in which Marius and Sulla, Caesar and Pompey, Octavius and Anthony were the protagonists.

Marius, who came from the people, overcame the Numidians (Africans) and saved Rome from the invasions of the Cimbrians and the Teutons (102 and 101 B.C.), exterminating them at the battles of Aix-les-Bains and Vercelli. Sulla, an aristocrat, put down a rebellion of the Italici, who demanded Roman citizenship, and defeated Mithridates, king of Pontus in Asia Minor, who had taken advantage of the rebellion of the Italici to invade Macedonia and Greece. Sulla was the first to use an army entrusted to his command to impose a dictatorship on Rome (87 B.C.). The following year, while Sulla was in the East, Marius turned the tables on him, but died almost immediately afterward. Sulla, having retired to Italy, was dictator until 79 B.C., when he retired voluntarily before his death. His reforms were abolished and the Italici peacefully obtained the rights previously denied them, but new civil strife between Pompey and Caesar was in the offing.

Pompey, consul for the first time in 70 B.C., and at first restorer of democracy, conducted various victorious military campaigns in Asia Minor and Syria, while in Rome, Caesar, consul for the first time in 59 B.C., began to attract attention. On the return of Pompey from the East, the two men came to an agreement between themselves and Crassus for the peaceful division of power (the first Triumvirate), but Caesar asked for,

and obtained, command of the Gallic provinces. He extended these provinces, bringing Rome such prizes as Gaul (France), Belgium, part of Germany, and advanced as far as Britain (58-51 B.C.). With the death of Crassus, the Senate declared Caesar a rebel. But Caesar did not abandon the command of his legions, and defeated Pompey in Italy, Spain and Greece. When Pompey was assassinated in Egypt (48 B.C.), Caesar became dictator for life, but was later killed by plotting patricians (mid-month Ides of March, 44 B.C.). He was equally great as a soldier, a writer and a politician. Following his death, however, the plotters did not succeed in getting into power. Instead, a triumvirate was formed by Anthony, Caesar's righthand man, Lepidus and Octavius, the heir and great-nephew of Caesar (second Triumvirate). The three defeated the plotters on the battlefield and divided power (Lepidus in Africa, Anthony in the East, Octavius in Rome). Lepidus was eliminated from the struggle for supremacy by his own ineptitude; Anthony and Octavius fought each other and Anthony was defeated at Actium (31 B.C.). Octavius remained in power and governed with great wisdom until 14 B.C., assuming the title of Augustus and founding the Empire.

The Republican Constitution was not formally cancelled with the creation of the Empire. But the Emperor (the title originally was given to victorious generals) assumed all administrative, military and legal powers (plus the right to propose laws and advise the Senate) as well as the duties of pontiff. He represented the supreme dignity of the Roman State and his person was sacred and inviolable. The Senate ceased to have its original importance; the people's meetings were no longer allowed. The army became the arbiter of power and a special imperial bureaucracy was created to administer the great State. With such powers, an Emperor endowed with humane and political qualities could do a great deal for the people. If, however, he did not possess such qualities, or had totally negative ones, there was no recourse other than plotting his overthrow. But the legions always had the final say. The title of Emperor was not even hereditary. The Emperor could designate his successor, but proclamation was by the army, and the Senate merely gave formal approval.

Under its Emperors, many of whom were good, while others were of the worst type, Rome extended still further and consolidated its power.

Claudius conquered South Britain and Palestine, Trajan gained possession of Dacis (Rumania), Armenia, Assyria and

Mesopotamia (97-117 A.D.). But very soon the Empire was compelled to concentrate on the defense of its frontiers, and with Diocletian (284-305 A.D.), it was divided into a Western Empire and an Eastern Empire, with two Emperors. Constantine (306-337) assumed both offices but moved the Imperial Court to Constantinople; Julian the Apostate (361-363) had a last offensive spark, defeating the Persians and going beyond the Tigris. But after the year 400, barbarians violated the frontiers in many places, and installed themselves in various countries (the Visigoths in Spain, the Franks and the Burgundians in Gaul, the Vandals in Africa). In Italy, the last Western Emperor of an empire reduced to Italy alone, was Romulus Augustus, who was deposed in 476 A.D. by Odoacer, commander of the barbarian mercenary militia.

Some of the Roman emperors were wise law-makers: Vespasian (69-79), who extended city life and citizenship by urbanizing the provinces; Hadrian (117-138) who pronounced the famous "Perpetual edict"; Antoninus Pius (138-161) and Marcus Aurelius (161-180). Caracalla (211-217) granted citizenship to all subjects of the empire; and Constantine, in 313, recognized Christianity with the Edict of Milan, after the Christians, from the time of Claudius, and especially under Diocletian, had suffered terrible persecution.

After the short apostasy of Julian (known as the "Apostate"), Theodosius (379-395) proclaimed Christianity the of-

ficial religion of the State. The heritage of Rome was taken up, after a long struggle, by the great Christian revolution.

The Middle Ages

The lands within the former boundaries of the Roman Empire, that were invaded by the Barbarians, nearly always suffered the ruthless plundering of their wealth, and were left weak and disorganized. The invaders themselves lacked the capacity to defend the conquered territories, and thus for several centuries Italy lay at the mercy of first one, then another foreign invading army. The peoples of continental Europe, however, made no attempt to assume political power, while the different regions of Italy were beginning to emerge as distinct from one another and under various rulers. In Southern Italy, first the Byzantines, then the Arabs, and finally the Normans, controlled the country without serious opposition, while in the North the Lombards, a fierce Germanic tribe, governed for about two centuries, with Pavia as their capital. They were succeeded by the Franks, whose great king, Charlemagne, was crowned in Rome in 800 A.D. by Pope Leo III as Emperor of the Holy Roman Empire.

For a while, the idea of an Imperial Rome associated with the Catholic faith was reborn, and the Franks did their utmost to convert all the peoples they conquered. Later, the feudal

division of Italy began, and by 888 A.D. the Italian lords controlling the Po region, Tuscany and Umbria had formed the so-called Kingdom of Italy, with Berengarius as their king, while in Rome itself a Church State was created. The Kingdom of Italy was, however, short-lived, owing to constant quarrels among the feudal lords, and by the second half of the 10th century Otto the First of Saxony had crossed the Alps and had imposed his rule upon the whole of northern Italy as far as and including Rome itself.

The final phase of the Middle Ages was characterized by the struggle for power between the Papacy and the various Germanic Emperors who tried to impose their authority upon Italy by claiming the title of Emperor of the Holy Roman Empire. The greatest of these, Frederick II, was born in Italy and held his court at Palermo in Sicily. He encouraged the arts, and it was at his court that the first poetry in the Italian language, as it is spoken today, was written in the early thirteenth century.

Many Italian cities now began to throw off foreign or feudal domination and to organize themselves into small independent states; Communes were formed for their administration, in which all classes were represented in an association for the common good. The arts, education, law and justice began to

flourish again during the long, disturbed medieval period; and, as the Communes grew in strength, their trade and commerce were extended to even distant countries. The sea-faring Republics of Pisa, Genoa and Venice were consolidating their power; in fact, Venice founded a state that ruled the seas and lasted for centuries, with a history of great splendor.

Savoy, later to become a Duchy and finally a Kingdom, was a small state in the north, protected by its mountains and the firmness of its rulers. The stronger Communes gradually absorbed the minor ones, and it was from these growing groups of city-states, and the necessity to make them able to defend themselves, that the "Signorie" came into being. The Signoria, or Lordship of the City, was the government of the City-State by the most prominent family. The Signorie managed to create lasting governments and to establish a kind of modern state, ruling usually with wisdom and bringing prosperity to the country as a whole. The Scaligeri at Verona, the Gonzagas at Mantua, the Estes in Emilia and the Medici in Florence, were the principal illustrious families, rulers of these states. The power and wealth of the Medici, founded on their banking enterprise, became so great later on, that members of the family married into the ruling houses of Europe, and others occupied the Papal throne.

The later Middle Ages saw a great flourishing of the arts, particularly the new Italian literature. Dante, Petrarch and Boccaccio lived in this period (1300-1400), as well as many painters and sculptors, forerunners of the great artists of the Renaissance, who made Italian art famous throughout the world.

The Renaissance

During the 14th and 15th centuries, the Communes changed into "Signorie" in order to save themselves from external dangers and from internal civil strife, giving up personal freedom and entrusting public affairs to a "Signore" who ruled with the absolute powers of a prince. Milan was governed by the Visconti and the Sforza families, Ravenna by the Da Polenta, Rimini by the Malatesta, Florence by the Medici, Urbino by the Montefeltro, Mantua by the Gonzaga and Ferrara by the Este. Another noble family was now beginning to exercise a great authority, a family that was to have an important role in future events in Italy, the House of Savoy. Venice confirmed its role as a great seafaring power.

In general, the 14th and 15th centuries witnessed a period of unequalled material and intellectual prosperity for Italy, while other European countries were suffering from continuous internal troubles. Industry and commerce grew without interference; and, with the invention of printing, there began a

magnificent cultural and artistic movement that, from humanism (study of the humanae litterae and the classical world), blossomed into the Renaissance. This was the period of Italy's greatest splendor and literary and artistic creation, and once again Florence (with Lorenzo de' Medici, known as the "Magnifico") was the center of this exceptional movement. Yet, even so, the Renaissance caused civil wars and great rivalry between the various Italian overlords, at a time when western Europe was witnessing the creation of powerful and united nations such as France, England, and Spain, and colonial policy was being introduced as a consequence of the great discoveries of the century.

In 1453, the fall of the eastern provinces of Rome and the Turkish conquest of the Mediterranean caused navigators to look for new sea routes to the Far East, which at that time furnished to Europe raw materials and products that were highly valued in world trade. Bartholomew Diaz and Vasco de Gama sailed around Africa, and Christopher Columbus, Amerigo Vespucci and Fernando Magellan explored the west. The "road to the Indies" had been found, but a new continent, America, was discovered by Columbus on October 12, 1492.

The discovery of this great continent caused profound changes in the course of history. Up to that time, the Mediterranean had been the center of civilization and world trade,

but, from 1492, the Atlantic Ocean gradually became more important. Goods for America or the East were now sent along the new route, whereas they had previously been carried via Egypt or Asia Minor. The Italian seafaring republics fell rapidly, and the riches and prosperity they had enjoyed now passed into the hands of those nations with coasts facing the Atlantic, Spain, Portugal, England, Holland and France. In this period of transfer of world trade and wealth, Italy became the natural battlefield for Austria, France and Spain, all of which were fighting for supremacy in Europe.

The military expedition of Charles VIII of France (1494) was the beginning of a long series of battles fought on Italian soil by opposing European armies. Vain were the voices of such solitary writers as Machiavelli, and no attention was paid the words of Popes such as Julius II, who pleaded that Italian overlords make a common front against the invaders. The Peace of Chateau-Cambrèsis in 1559 led to Spanish domination of the Duchy of Milan and the Kingdom of Naples, Sicily and Sardinia.

During the first half of the 18th century, after the various phases of the "Wars of Succession", the Italian political situation changed radically. The fall of the Spanish dominion brought about the creation of three dynasties of foreign origin,

completely independent but which were to last up to the 19th century. The Bourbons held the kingdom of Naples and ruled in Sicily, the Habsburg-Lorraine took over Tuscany, while the Bourbons were again successful in Parma and Piacenza. In 1720, the Duke of Savoy, Vittorio Amedeo II, obtained the title of King and the dominion of Sardinia, increasing his prestige and power. The Papal States increased considerably with the annexation of the territories belonging to the Este family (Ferrara and Bologna); and the Catholic Church, by means of the Council of Trent, succeeded in overcoming the crisis that had followed in the wake of the Protestant Reformation. At this point, Italy enjoyed a period of relative prosperity. Peace was accompanied by a general re-awakening, due to the philosophy of Illuminism that blossomed in France and found additional fertile ground in Italy.

The "Risorgimento"

When the victorious armies of Napoleon reached the north of Italy, they met with scarce resistance among the decaying regimes, already corroded by the support the intellectuals gave to the new ideas of liberty. In 1796, Napoleon was able to attack the Austrian and Piedmont monarchies dominating the area, and to defeat them with only 36,000 men against 70,000 defenders. Napoleon attacked his enemies separately, and de-

feated them several times, taking Piedmont, Nice and Savoy; he took Lombardy from Austria, the Marches and Romagna from the Pope, suppressed the Republic of Venice (which then passed to Austria) and founded the Cisalpine Republic and the Ligurian Republic, which were followed by the Roman Republic and the Parthenopean Republic. All these states had but a short life, for when Napoleon departed for Egypt to attack the English, the former governments were restored by force of arms. But Napoleon returned in 1800, again defeated his enemies and created the Italian Republic. He was crowned King of Italy in Milan in 1805. When he was finally defeated at Waterloo in 1815, the Congress of Vienna re-established the Austrians in Lombardy and Venetia, gave Liguria to Charles Felix of Savoy, Parma and Piacenza to Marie Louise of Austria (ex-wife of Napoleon), Modena to Francis IV of Austria, Lucca to Marie Louise of Bourbon, and Tuscany to Ferdinand III of Hapsburg-Lorraine. The Bourbons returned to Naples, and Rome remained a Papal state.

For some years, only three states had governed the Italians. After centuries of division, a kingdom of Italy had been formed and many Italians had fought in various parts of the world under the banner of Napoleon. Such events, naturally, had a great effect on the feelings of the people and favored

the irredentist atmosphere which had been spread among the educated classes by the "Romantic" movement. The Italian Risorgimento was slowly prepared, first in secret and conspiracy (freemasonry and secret meetings), then with attempts at insurrection (1820, 1821 and 1831), and finally by the union of political and military forces, while the "Young Italy", a political movement founded by Giuseppe Mazzini with a precise program of liberty, independence, national unity and a Republic, marked a new step forward in the democratic education of the people. The "Risorgimento" exploded with the unfortunate events of 1848, and finally reached a climax in 1859-60-61, when the wise policies of the great statesman Camillo di Cavour were able to exploit all the factors favorable to the Risorgimento, namely the particular international situation of the moment, the Mediterranean interests of England and France, the strong arm of Garibaldi, the apostolate of Mazzini and the military strength of Piedmont.

It was Austria which, after 1815, controlled the whole of the peninsula and it was Austria which, in 1821, permitted Ferdinand II of Bourbon, king of the two Sicilies, to crush the rebels and to annul the constitution granted to his subjects the previous year. The same thing happened in 1821 with Charles Felix in Piedmont, after the Regent, Charles Albert, had approved the constitution, and again in 1831 with Francis IV in Modena,

and Pope Gregory XVI in Bologna. But, in 1846, the newly-elected Pope, Pius IX, declared in Rome that he was in favor of constitutional reform, and this was granted in 1848 in Piedmont, by Charles Albert when he became king, and in Tuscany by Leopold II. In March of the same year, Milan and Venice rose against the Austrians and called upon Charles Albert for help. He intervened with his army, but after the first indecisive victories, he was defeated at Custoza (July 1848) and signed an armistice. He gave battle a year later but was again defeated at Novara (March 1849), and he abdicated and died in exile a few months later. Victor Emmanuel II, who succeeded him to the throne, made peace with the Austrians and refused to abrogate the constitution. The Austrians managed to re-establish their hold on Milan, Venice and Brescia by force.

In Rome (1829), troops belonging to various powers, called in by the Pope who had now given up his liberal ideas, crushed the Roman Republic proclaimed by Giuseppe Mazzini and defended by Garibaldi.

Thus the last sparks of liberty were extinguished; but there had begun a period of fruitful preparation, thanks to the patient work of Count Camillo Benso di Cavour, Prime Minister of King Victor Emmanuel II of Savoy. By his able diplomacy, Cavour was able to bring Piedmont out of a state of isolation and have the problem of Italian unification recognized as one of the great international questions. He saw favorable pros-

pects in the new European situation, created by the second French Empire of Napoleon III. The participation of a Piedmont contingent in the Crimea War of 1855 enabled Cavour to participate in the Paris Congress of 1856 as a representative of the Italian cause before European diplomacy, to the point of compelling Austria to ask for the disarmament of Piedmont. War followed and Austria was beaten in the field by the Franco-Piedmont army at San Martino and Solferino (1859). Lombardy was ceded to Napoleon who in turn ceded it to Victor Emmanuel. Tuscany, Modena, Parma and Romagna now rose and, in March 1860, held a plebiscite favoring union with Piedmont. In May, Garibaldi sailed from Genoa with two vessels given him by the Rubattino shipping company, and landed in Sicily with 1,000 volunteers. This small army, swelling in numbers as it progressed, left Marsala and fought its way through the whole of the Bourbon realm, gaining victories at Calatafimi, Milazzo, and finally on the Volturno. This legendary undertaking is still very dear to the hearts of the Italian people. The Marches and Umbria broke away from the Papal states, voting in a plebiscite for union with Italy. A Piedmont army descended on that region and Abruzzo to fight and defeat the papal troops, and Victor Emmanuel finally met with Garibaldi at Teano, where the unification of Italy under one King was declared. On March 17,

1861, the first Italian Parliament formally proclaimed the constitution of the Kingdom of Italy. The province of Venetia was not included at this date, but was annexed in 1866, after yet another war with Austria in which Italians and Prussians fought together. Rome and Latium entered the kingdom in 1870 after Napoleon III, who had protected the temporal power of the Popes up to that time, was defeated by the Prussians at Sedan and lost his throne. Trento and Trieste were finally liberated in 1918, after the first World War.

The rapid succession of events between 1859 and 1870 favoring Italian nationalist aspirations, was aided by the European situation. Great antagonism existed between France and Austria on the continent, and between England and France in the Mediterranean.

The participation of the people in the Risorgimento varied according to the spread of these ideas at the time. But the best of Italian society was in full agreement and cooperated, sometimes with varying intentions, in the general political re-awakening and the movement for national unity. Such men as Vincenzo Gioberti, leader of the "neo-Guelph" school, Cesare Balbo and Massimo d'Azeglio, leaders of the "moderates", Giuseppe Mazzini (Unitarian Republican), Carlo Cattaneo and Giuseppe Ferrari (Federal Republicans), Alessandro Manzoni, Berchet, Giusti, Belli, Pellico, Grossi, Settembrini, Guerrazzi,

D'Azeglio, Prati, Nievo, Cantù, Tommaseo, Colletta, Cuoco, Capponi, Viesseux, Amari, De Santis, Vincenzo Bellini, Gioacchino Rossini and Giuseppe Verdi, all contributed spiritually, and at times actively, to the Italian Risorgimento.

A special tribute should be paid to Giacomo Leopardi, a man of acute and profound intellect, who left poetry which ranks among the purest gems of art of the nation, and who may be considered the first of the modern poets.

From a military-political point of view, the Risorgimento began with a series of selfless revolutionary attempts by the followers of the Mazzini doctrine. These finished tragically (in 1834 at Genoa, 1844 in Sicily, and in Campania in 1857). It was then that the military strength and political maturity of Piedmont took command of the nationalist movement. Cavour showed himself capable of using the teachings of Mazzini, the military ability of Garibaldi and, above all, the silent operations of the National Society, founded by the Venetian patriot Daniele Manin and directed by a Sicilian, Giuseppe La Farina. Cavour guided Piedmont through the events of 1859, 1860 and 1861 with ability and extraordinary energy. He died suddenly at the age of 51 on June 6, 1861. He is still considered one of the greatest statesmen of Italy.

Contemporary Italy

With unification completed, a difficult task faced the generation which came after the Risorgimento. The problem now was to bring some sort of balance to a national structure which had varying social, cultural and economic levels, to bring about unity of thought in many regions of diverse temperament and historical background, and to give Italy a just place among the European nations then engaged in colonial and industrial expansion.

The Risorgimento ended when Rome became the capital of Italy.

Two years later (1872) Mazzini died, followed in 1878 by Victor Emmanuel II and in 1882 by Giuseppe Garibaldi. The great figures of the Risorgimento had thus disappeared, and in 1876 the "historic right" had yielded its power to the "democratic left". During this period, while the European Powers sought to assure some kind of equilibrium through alliances, (The Triple Appliance between Italy, Germany and Austria gave peace to Europe for thirty years) they were thrusting towards Africa: France to Tunisia and England to Egypt.

Attempts were made on the part of Italy to colonize territories in the Red Sea area by purchasing Assab Bay in 1882, and creating the colony of Eritrea in 1889 by the treaty of Uccialli signed with Abyssinia. During the same period, agree-

ments were stipulated with the Sultans of coastal territories in the Indian Ocean, and treaties signed with Great Britain, which permitted colonization of Somaliland. The author of these African policies was Premier Francesco Crispi, whose government fell in 1896 after relations deteriorated with Abyssinia, and an Italian military corps was isolated and defeated at Adua because of haphazard military operations. He was further hampered by the opposition of the Socialists, who organized violent street demonstrations which provoked bloody government repression in 1898. The country was again badly shaken when Humbert I, who succeded his father Victor Emmanuel II, was assassinated by an arachist in Monza on July 29, 1900.

The new king, Victor Emmanuel III, followed an intelligent and democratic policy during the first years of his reign, with the able assistance of the Piedmont statesman Giuseppe Giolitti, who was Prime Minister for ten years (1910-1913). Giolitti favored the Socialist movement and sought to legalize it and introduce it into the parliamentary life of the country. He paid particular attention to economic development and was instrumental in leading Italy to the colonial conquest of Libya (1911-12), after less than a year of war with Turkey. In 1914, Great Britain ceded to Italy the ample territory of Upper Juba, in Somaliland and the Dodecanese Islands in the Aegean.

When the political crisis, which was to lead to the first

World War, broke out in July 1914, Italy had already made great strides. Industry, particularly in the north, had been greatly developed, state finances were sound, the southern areas were able to find relief from the burden of overpopulation through emigration, and the Socialists, formerly a revolutionary party, had legalized their position. Literature flourished with such men as Fogazzaro, Verga, Carducci, Pascoli and D'Annunzio; the theater boasted Cossa, Praga, Rovetta, Giacosa; philosophy was represented by Spaventa, Labriola, Gentile and, above all, Benedetto Croce; art by Fattori, Lega, Fontanesi, Segantini, Michetti, Morelli and Favaretto. The period was also enhanced by the music of Boito, Catalani, Puccini, Mascagni, Giordano and Cilea and the world benefitted by the scientific discoveries of Marconi, Righi and Forlanini, etc.; among the historians were Pais, De Sanctis, Ferrero, Salvemini, Volpe, Omodea, Salvatorelli.

When the first World War broke out Italy renounced its alliance with Germany and Austria and became neutral, since the Triple Alliance had an exclusively defensive character and Austria had not only started war by attacking Serbia, but had not even informed the Italian government of its decision. But a policy of neutrality soon proved impossible to maintain, in view of the pressure of those who wanted Italy to reach her natural boundaries. By attacking Serbia, Austria had dis-

turbed the equilibrium of the Balkans to the detriment of Italy, an equilibrium whose conservation had been one of the motives which had induced Italy to sign the treaty of alliance. Moreover, the hegemonic aims of the Central Powers constituted a threat to Italy. After a period of polemics between those in favor of intervention and those supporting neutrality, Italy entered the war on May 24, 1915, on the side of France and Great Britain. At the end of the war (November 1918), which cost Italy 600,000 dead and more than a million disabled or wounded, the treaty of St. Germain (1919) enabled this country to establish its natural boundaries by transfer of Trentino and Alto Adige as far as the Brenner, to the north, and the valley of the Isonzo, with Gradisca, Gorizia, Trieste and Istria to the east. Italy was excluded from the division of the German colonies although its contribution to victory had been of great importance; this caused great discontent throughout the country. A treaty stipulated at Rapallo (1920) gave Yugoslavia the Venetian cities along the Dalmatian coast, with the exception of Zara and some neighboring islands which passed to Italy. Fiume was to remain an independent state. This city was the object of an isolated coup by the poet-soldier Gabriele D'Annunzio, who occupied it with a small force of volunteers but was later forced to evacuate by the Italian government, under

pressure from France and Great Britain. But, under the Rome Treaty of 1924, Yugoslavia finally ceded Fiume to Italy.

The debilitating inheritance of the first World War was manifested by a grave political crisis in the country, determined by the discontent of the interventionists of 1915 with the "mutilated victory", and by Bolshevik-inspired unrest, all of which was aggravated by the uncertain policies of the governing class during the immediate postwar period. In four years, V.E. Orlando, F. S. Nitti, Giovanni Giolitti (now very old), Ivanoe Bonomi and Luigi Facta succeeded one another as Prime Ministers and there were general elections in 1919 and 1921. The Socialist Party, although strong in number, was incapable of taking any initiative; the Popular Party, of Catholic inspiration, had only just been created; and, although taking an active part in the formation of various governments and contributing to the struggle against revolutionary socialism, it did not succeed in giving new guidance to Italian policies. The fate of the country remained in the hands of the boldest political faction, the Fascist Party, founded in Milan in 1919, which had arisen through the efforts of an ex-Socialist, Benito Mussolini, who in 1914 had supported intervention in favor of France and Great Britain. Unimportant until 1921, Fascism quickly became strong, with the support of ex-servicemen and the younger generations, and by uniting itself with the na-

tionalist party. Mussolini forced the hand of a hesitant monarch with a symbolic march on Rome in October 1922. No incidents occurred, since Victor Emmanuel III, convinced of Mussolini's good intentions, refused to sign a decree declaring a state of siege and asked him to form a new government. In fact, Mussolini never touched the monarchical institution, although he lessened its power and prestige. Up to 1925, he governed within the orbit of parliamentary and democratic institutions, and even with the collaboration of members of the other political parties. After the 1924 elections, the murder by certain Fascist elements of a Socialist deputy, Giacomo Matteotti, endangered Mussolini's power.

The failure of Parliament to act permitted Mussolini to strengthen his position, first by dissolving the Parliament itself and the political parties, then by creating, after several attempts on his life, a dictatorship which lasted until July 25, 1943.

There was a notable event in 1929, with the ending of the disagreement between the Pope and the Italian Government, which had lasted since 1870. In that year, the Lateran Pact was concluded with Pope Pius XI, a treaty which recognized the full sovereignity of the Holy See over the small area enclosed by the Vatican Wall (Vatican City), while the Holy See, in its turn, recognized juridically the Kingdom of Italy.

The principle, already stated in the Albertine Statute, that the Catholic religion must be considered the official state religion, was reaffirmed.

On Fascist policy in home affairs, it is necessary to recall the imposing public works program (the reclaiming of the Pontine Marshes was particularly notable), the monetary reforms, and an attempt to settle the class struggle through a corporative system of an autarchic nature undertaken to make Italy independent of foreign markets. In foreign policy, Fascism started and concluded (with the secret support of France, and the sterile opposition of Great Britain) a colonial campaign for the conquest of Abyssinia (1935-36). As a result, Victor Emmanuel III was able to assume the title of "Emperor of Ethiopia" for his heirs and successors to which he added "King of Albania" after the conquest of that nation in 1939. League of Nations opposition to this Italian initiative slowly brought Italy to a position of isolation, which contributed toward a policy of closer relations with Germany, where, under Hitler, the National Socialist party had come into power. England and France became still more divided from Italy when the Fascist Government intervened in Spain against the Republic, which was supported by the Soviet Union and other nations.

Meanwhile Nazi Germany, after having reoccupied the Rhine

(March 1936), also annexed Austria (March 1938), with the tacit consent of the Italian government. Nazi policy was now moving inevitably forward, and Fascist Italy inspired more than anything else by ideological motives was induced to follow the same road. Italy had left the League of Nations in December 1939. In September 1938 at Munich, Italian mediation between Germany on one side and France and Britain on the other, aimed at delaying the outbreak of war, in spite of the constantly more alarming development of the German policy of annexation. But a year later, following the repeated violation of the Munich Agreement itself by the Germans, and the annexation of Danzig, the econd World War broke out.

The formal alliance between Fascist Italy and Nazi Germany was signed only on May 22, 1939 and Mussolini, according to the terms of the pact, was to enter the war at the side of his ally in 1942. In fact, he declared Italian nonbelligerance at the outbreak of hostilities. But almost immediately afterwards, on June 10, 1940, deceived by the lightning victories of the Germans in Poland, Norway and France, and afraid of having to accept a German peace for Italy as well, he declared war on Great Britain and France, although Italy was quite unprepared, morally and materially. A few days later France asked for an armistice.

In order to counter-balance German influence in Central

Europe, Mussolini on October 28, 1940, ordered Italian troops in Albania to attack and occupy Greece. Compelled to send troops to distant fronts, to defend cities and a vast coastline with means that were absolutely inadequate, lacking raw materials and a modern war industry, Italy, insufficiently helped by Germany, could not withstand the strain of war, in spite of heroic episodes on various battle fronts. In Africa, Greece and far-off Russia, Italian troops fought with weapons and material greatly inferior to those of the Anglo-Americans and the Russians.

Realizing, too late, the real attitude of the Italian people towards the war, and the consequent dramatic change on the home front, Victor Emmanuel, following the vote against Mussolini by the Grand Council of Fascism during the night of July 24, 1943, ejected the leader of the Fascist Government and nominated Marshal Pietro Badoglio as Prime Minister. Badoglio immediately attempted to conclude an armistice with the Allies who by now had conquered the whole of North Africa and landed in Sicily (July 10). The armistice was signed in Sicily on September 3, and announced on September 8. The Government and the King were compelled to leave Rome for Brindisi; the Germans took control of north and central Italy and attempted to repel an Allied landing at Salerno. The Kingdom of Italy, in the South, became "co-belligerent", and on October 13 de-

clared war on the Germans. Meanwhile, in the North, the Germans had favored the formation of the "Italian Social Republic" headed by Mussolini, after releasing him from the prison to which he had been confined by the Badoglio Government. This was one of the most glorious but painful periods of Italian history, for it brought civil war and a consequent division of people, and ever-increasing destruction and misery. On June 4, 1944, the Allies liberated Rome and Victor Emmanuel abdicated in favor of his son, Humbert, who was nominated Lieutenant General of the Realm. The National Committee of Liberation, formed by anti-Fascist parties (Christian Democrats, Liberals, Labor Democrats, Actionists, Socialists, and Communists), asked for, and obtained, the creation of a new government, headed by Ivanoe Bonomi. Throughout German-occupied Italy a Resistance Movement was organized, and this became particularly effective in the North, where the anti-Fascists were most active, even though compelled to lead a clandestine existence. Finding a natural strength in the sentiment of rebellion against the Nazi-Fascist tyranny, this "Partisan" Resistance Movement had the merit of constantly molesting enemy communication and holding considerable numbers of the enemy in mountain areas. Resistance was also constant in the cities, where the workers organized political strikes which paralyzed production. The struggle carried on by the Italian partisans against the Germans

was harsh and bloody everywhere: about 55,000 dead and over 20,000 wounded and disabled are evidence of the courage and spirit of sacrifice which animated the partisan forces. In April 1945, the Allies overran the Gothic line and entered the Po Valley, as Germany was suffering defeat on its home front. The Social Republic crumbled, and the dictator was captured and executed by partisans on April 28, as he was attempting to flee towards Valtellina.

The Peace Treaty was signed in Paris on February 10, 1947; it had been drafted the previous year at the Paris Conference, known as the "Conference of 21", because of the number of participating nations. These nations were members of a new world organization (The United Nations), created among the nations that had fought the Nazis and Fascists. The defeated nations (among them, Italy) were forced to suffer a treaty which they had not been able even to discuss. Among other things, it imposed on Italy the loss of Venetia Julia (won at such great cost in the 1915-18 war) and the loss of all claims on the colonies (Libya became an independent state, Eritrea was united to Ethiopia while the United Nations authorized Italian trusteeship in Somaliland for a period of ten years). Italy also had to cede Briga and Tenda to France, the Dodecanese to Greece, Dalmatia and part of Istria to Yugoslavia and accept the creation of the Free Territory of Trieste.

THE ITALIAN ARMED FORCES

The Army, Navy and Air Force

In conformity with the decisions taken by government, the Ministry of Defense actuates a purely defensive policy and works for world distension. At the same time, Italy continues to give wholehearted support to the Atlantic Alliance, which has now reached the stage where it needs a new structure. In other words, the Italian military structure is mainly concerned with defense of the country, the safe-guarding of Italian interests in the Mediterranean, and the organization of a defensive structure adequate to domestic needs and to the role this country plays in the western alliance.

Such policy was continued in recent years in spite of certain strategic changes made necessary by such events as the expansion in Soviet naval units in the Mediterranean and the transfer of large contingents of land forces of the Warsaw Pact to Czechoslovakia.

Defense is based on "flexible counter-attack," which represents acceptance of the theory that any eventual aggression would not take the form of general hostilities, but rather that of limited and local fighting. Furthermore, the employment of a wide range of potential military might, ranging from conventional to nuclear weapons, represents a powerful argument against aggression and, at the same time, provides an opportunity

of suiting the defense policy to the importance of the attack, should one occur.

The Ministry of Defense, within the limits of its budget, has continued to make every effort to improve defensive efficiency, making decisions that properly consider the cost-value ratio and the possibilities offered by the five year development plan for the modernization of the three services.

In 1968, the Ministry of Defense was voted a budget of Lit. 1,311,000, equal to about 3.13% of the gross national income for 1967. In view of the fact that "fixed expenditure" (consisting of cost of personnel, pensions, maintenance of equipment, infrastructure and training) absorbed about 84% of the total, approximately Lit. 185,000 million were spent on modernization and expansion.

The process of reorganization of central administration at the Ministry of Defense continued throughout the last few years. From a technical and bureaucratic viewpoint, the goal is uniform planning and execution as a means of obtaining maximum results. The same principle has been employed in technical-military fields, particularly in the case of the General Staffs. An important move was made with the institution of a Joint Chiefs of Staff Committee and the appointment of a Secretary General for Defense to act as a consultant to the department. The step was taken for the purpose of modernizing the military structure, starting

at the top of the military hierarchy, and is something quite new to the Italian Armed Forces. It will guarantee uniform decisions, now of the utmost importance because of close operational cooperation between the Army, Navy, and Air Force and the need for more complete and accurate analysis of the many factors involved. Limited ideas and impulsive thinking no longer have any possible role in military strategy, which calls for joint handling of a highly complicated machine.

No less important, in the interests of cooperation between the three services, has been the opening of the Interforce Medical College for future medical and veterinary officers of the Army, Navy and Air Force. Those who are accepted as entrants are required to undergo university training, obtain a degree and be registered in their respective professions. An adequate allowance is made to them during training and all expenses are paid by the Ministry of Defense.

General, technical, and scientific training is yet another aspect which has received close attention. Such training is the direct responsibility of the Defense Staff, when it concerns exercises on a domestic scale or with NATO allies, bilateral exercises with individual allies, or the employment of Italian contingents as part of the mobile forces of the Allied Command in Europe, at the head of which is an Italian general. The training of senior officers takes three forms:

interforce colleges and training schools, courses of a scientific nature, and combined training with allied nations. The first includes the Senior College of Military Education, which provides annual courses for high ranking officers and civil servants, and trains them in joint analysis of problems concerning national defense. The Interforce Staff College is also of paramount importance, since it trains staff officers of the three services to study and answer common problems. The N.B.C. Defense College (Nuclear, Biology and Chemistry), the school of Air Cooperation and the School of Telecommunications are also run on an interforce basis and provide specialized training in their respective fields for all ranks and branches of the Armed Forces.

Training provided in Italy for serving members of allied forces is yet another form of the training cooperation program introduced by NATO and it has been extended to other nations. About twenty-five countries send their representatives to schools and centers belonging to the Italian Armed Forces, chief among them being the states of Latin America and many African nations.

Special mention must be made of the technological developments that the three services have achieved for the country, and their contribution to scientific research. Indeed, they have been of great assistance in the planning and application of new technical methods. In order to train highly qualified

personnel for the many scientific branches of the military structure, the Technical and Scientific Defense Council organizes a vast number of annual courses, all of them of post-graduate level, and these are open to officers of the Army, Navy and Air Force and to civilians.

Government assistance in technical and scientific research is obviously related to the fact that every new discovery is sooner or later employed for military purposes. This means that the Ministry of Defense has to be directly responsible for research and give encouragement to others engaged in similar work. This task is directed and coordinated by the Technical and Scientific Defense Council, a highly qualified body that cooperates closely with the National Research Council. Constant and faster technological progress causes precocious obsolescence of equipment and installations used by the Armed Forces and this explains the urgent need for uninterrupted research on a domestic and international level.

At the present time, civil and military joint interests concern jet propulsion, electronics, chemistry, biology, automation, operative research, and nuclear and space research. Outstanding in these fields have been the San Marco space project, the first Italian nuclear-powered ship, and the experiments now being carried out by the European Space Research Organization (ESRO) at the Interforce Experimental and Training

Station at Salto di Quirra in Sardinia. National and international cooperation has begun in such fields as telecommunications and electronics. As a result of the excellent work completed recently, the next few years should witness some very interesting projects, including new data processing systems applied to many fields, and the NATO satellite communications system connecting the fifteen member states of the Atlantic Alliance.

Of no less importance is the coordination policy followed by the Defense Staff. This includes the study of foreign languages and their application, while an English language proficiency test has been completed and is currently undergoing trials. Italy is also a member of the International Bureau of Language Coordination and is studying the possibility of creating modern schools of translation for all service commands.

Some mention must be made of sports activities. These have expanded because of reciprocal agreements signed with the Italian Olympic Committee in 1954. Athletes of the three services have been competing in national and international meetings and the results are at an excellent technical level. In domestic events, new records were established; substantial victories were achieved in boxing, skiing and rowing. About 1,500 athletes from the Army, Navy and Air Force took part in the "3rd Armed Forces Sports Week".

In international events, military athletes won two championships at meetings arranged by the International Council of Military Athletics, obtained a double victory at the Grenoble Olympics and were first in the 15 kilometer cross-country ski competition. The twenty-three military athletes competing in the Olympic Games at Mexico City were equally successful.

For many years, the Ministry of Defense has been responsible for an undertaking of the utmost importance and one that it intends to expand. This relates to the civic, educational and professional preparation of all recruits undergoing compulsory training, a project which has excellent results and which has undoubtedly created many thousands of industrious and well trained workers.

The Army

Further steps were taken recently with regard to strategy, training and modernization of equipment. The Army has also been engaged in research into future trends in military thinking, in view of the constant evolution in technology and science. As a means of testing the theories elaborated, training was mainly devoted to tactical maneuvers concerning attack and defense by day and night.

In order to obtain an accurate picture of the composition of the Army, something must be said about its structure. There are two chief components - an Expeditionary Force and a Defense

Force. Both consist of highly mobile motorized and mechanized divisions, which can operate quite independently for long periods over any type of terrain. They include all the various branches, infantry, cavalry, artillery, engineers and communications, and general services. To these must be added the armored divisions, heavily armed, very mobile and able to operate against an enemy using nuclear or conventional weapons. Some modifications were made to their structure in recent years in order to facilitate command and movement.

There are also some special units, such as the Alpine regiments, parachutists and missile groups, which are employed according to strategic needs.

The complicated weapons and equipment now used by the Army have increased the need for highly specialized technicians. Training schools and centers are responsible for the training of permanent officers, N.C.O.'s, and other personnel undergoing compulsory military service.

Educational and training organization was given special care, for it was realized that the grade of efficiency now necessary calls for thorough basic instruction.

Because of their immense value to the labor market, some mention must be made of the schools responsible for training technical personnel in permanent service and those who are undergoing compulsory military service. By means of these schools,

the Army is able to give technical instruction to a large number of recruits; about 64,000 men are trained annually and given a diploma which will enable them to find employment in industry when leaving the Army. The training of short-term personnel also includes courses in civic affairs and special courses are organized for illiterates and semi-literates.

It has been found that short-term personnel profit considerably from sport and physical training and this is provided for everyone. Those who are successful in meetings and competitions of national importance are able to continue athletic training in special companies stationed in Rome, Naples and Bologna. The School of Physical Education in Orvieto is responsible for training instructors, and units are thus assured of staff with considerable experience and competence.

The evolution in technical media and procedure has been such that the Italian Army is constantly faced with the problem of modernizing and strengthening units. This is generally done by planning and production on a national level and through supplies of materials and equipment produced under agreements with NATO.

A general plan covering replacement of weapons and equipment was started in 1962. It was approved because of the need to guarantee units those factors necessary to modern operations, particularly fire power, maneuverability and defense. There

have been several changes in personal weapons and mortars for the infantry, new tanks have been issued to armored units, engineers and communications branches have received new equipment, logistics have been revised for the purpose of improving the personal equipment and living conditions of troops, and drastic changes have been made in the medical branch. All units have now reached a high grade of mobility.

The efforts made by the Army in recent years are continuing, and planning has become much more flexible. Changes and additions are made annually, thus enabling officers, N.C.O.'s and other ranks to keep pace with technical progress.

A large part of the expenditure involved covered orders placed with national industry and this had undoubtedly economic, social (creation of new jobs, higher wages, amortization of expenditure for new plant), technical and scientific benefits (training of skilled tradesmen, technological progress, etc.).

Research relative to modernization of equipment and materials was intense, because of the recognized need for operational efficiency and the faster pace of technological development.

In spite of the fact that allocations are not large, various important research projects were successfully concluded, and several new ones were initiated.

Undoubtedly, many benefits have derived from international cooperation within the sphere of the Atlantic Alliance. This

cooperation has fully demonstrated its value (joint research, co-production, exchange of information), and those nations which are less prosperous and less technologically advanced are able to play a profitable role in research, with beneficial results in many fields.

Research covers all branches and, as a result of closer collaboration with industry and scientific bodies, has been highly productive. Industry is being encouraged to specialize even more and to achieve higher technical levels.

The contributions which the Army makes toward the social and economic progress of Italy include matters which are the direct responsibility of civil authorities.

The Army is always asked to help local populations during natural calamities and when public utilities are threatened because of strikes. The following examples give some idea of what has been done. When certain regions of Sicily were heavily damaged by earthquake, about 3,500 troops, 560 motor vehicles and special equipment were sent immediately to the stricken zones. During the floods in Piedmont, the Army sent 4,000 troops, 700 motor vehicles, 15 helicopters, bridges and other equipment, food, medicines and shelters. About 32,000 troops and 1,300 motor vehicles of various kinds are employed throughout the year for a variety of reasons (postal services, road, rail and tram services, supplies of gas and electricity, medical services,

fire fighting, supplies of water to isolated localities, etc.).

Also, 50,000 troops were on duty at polling stations during the last general elections.

The Navy

The Italian Navy has now reached a total of over 130,000 tons, about 70% of which represents units constructed in the last fifteen years. The main fleet consists of three cruisers (G. Garibaldi, Doria and Duilio) and two missile-carrying destroyers (Impavido and Intrepido). Further, there are 53 destroyers, frigates, corvettes and submarines, about 60% of which are new or of recent construction. Minor units consist of 85 minesweepers, M.T.B.'s and gun-boats and about 200 auxiliary vessels.

The missile-carrying cruiser Vittorio Veneto and the submarine Mocenigo are soon to be handed over to the fleet and two gun-boats (Dardo and Strale) and two missile-carrying destroyers (Ardito and Audace), now under construction, will be added in the near future. The naval air arm uses landbased aircraft and helicopters flown from airfields or ships.

A special combined operations force continues the traditions of the original marines and the San Marco Regiment. It consists of one battalion of the San Marco divided among three special landing vessels (Etna, Quarto and Bafile) and is highly mobile.

The latest units to be handed over to the Navy are all equipped with automatic control devices for propulsion, defense, escort duties and submarine location, as well as air defense, for which missiles are chiefly employed. Helicopters carried aboard are particularly useful in offensive action against nuclear-powered submarines which, because of their speed and almost limitless autonomy, are now the most serious threat to sea traffic. With the modern units at its disposal, the Italian Navy is always engaged in training exercises, in collaboration with NATO and individual allies.

Apart from continuing the process of modernization and carrying out those duties relative to patrolling and safeguarding those areas entrusted to it, the Italian Navy also plays a role in other affairs, such as carrying water supplies to Capri and many other small islands, protecting the fishing fleets and answering calls for assistance.

These tasks, which are not strictly the responsibilities of the Navy, are often very complicated and call for a considerable number of vessels and crews. The twenty tanks which the Navy uses for carrying water cover about 8,000 kilometers a year, transporting an average of 410,000 tons of drinking water. The protection of Italian fishing fleets, in the Adriatic and the Mediterranean, requires 14 units which carry

out more than 170 missions per year, for a total of 8,000 hours of navigation. There are also numerous emergency calls and local patrols. Medical assistance is supplied to local populations in naval hospitals; helicopters and small ships carry emergency patients from the islands to the mainland and a large number of amateur boatsmen are given assistance when in difficulties.

Like the Army and the Air Force, the Italian Navy helped in rescue operations after the disastrous earthquake in Sicily. Valuable assistance was given by such units as Stromboli, Urania, Vesuvio, Bergamini, Aquila, Altair, Etna, Sgombro, Squalo and Storione and by the helicopter squadrons. One of the outstanding achievements was the intervention at Santa Ninfa, where naval crews set up a huge tented area accomodating about 600 persons.

Training cruises are used as a means of widening the academic and professional preparation of naval cadets and crews. These are also a way of maintaining strong relations between Italy itself and Italian emigrants abroad.

Among these sea-faring ambassadors are the sailing ships Corsaro II and Stella Polare which, although small, have performed well. During its first Atlantic cruise, the Stella Polare was the winner of the Port Hamilton-Travemunde Atlantic Regatta.

Mention should be made of the technical and scientific acti-

vities of the Italian Navy. Specialized naval personnel are now engaged in many fields and, among these, nuclear propulsion is certainly one of the most important. Following an agreement with the National Council for Nuclear Energy and the Ministry of Industry and Trade, the Italian Navy has assumed responsibility for the construction and operation of a vessel equipped with a nuclear reactor. The relative project calls for a great deal of research, in regards to both the construction of the reactor and the improvements in the performance of the original model. The project is also important because of the advantages it may bring in producing reactors for merchant shipping at competitive costs. The vessel, planned as a "logistical support ship," will be such that it can be used for all types of experiments likely to widen knowledge concerning the employment of nuclear propulsion on a commercial scale and will also permit the Navy to start on its program of nuclear powered units for its own specific purposes.

Some interesting experiments have also been carried out on hydrofoils, including testing of a model with a completely submerged wing which has shown itself to be faster and stronger. Trials have continued with hovercraft, which promise to be useful for amphibious operations. The Navy is also experimenting with computers and data processing.

The shipbuilding industry has undoubtedly benefitted from the orders placed with it by the naval authorities, often their only source of income. Heavy and specialized branches of industry continue to be busy with the construction of very modern mechanical and electronic apparatus, and the experimental stations belonging to the Navy employ civilian personnel. All these factors, although immediately concerning naval operations, contribute towards keeping domestic enterprise on the move.

Because of the high level of automation now required, the modern warship has become a world in which technology reigns. As a result, more and more skilled men are required and, in this way, the Navy is helping the economic goals of the nation by training thousands of recruits who, at the conclusion of their compulsory service, have achieved a technical level that ensures them immediate acceptance by industry and other specialized sectors of the economy.

The Air Force

The Air Force reorganized its squadrons and its structure for technical and logistic services in 1969. Many problems had to be overcome in the interests of national defense and their solution has been influenced by the imperative demands of domestic economy and the burdens and responsibilities assumed by Italy as a member of NATO.

Competent authorities had to take into account the evolution taking place all over the world and the need to create an air force that, for size and efficiency, can successfully repel aerial attack and give support to army and naval forces. Therefore, priority has been given to new squadrons of operational aircraft, and others capable of cooperating with the other two services.

In view of the above, many arduous problems have had to be answered. Unfortunately, replacement of operational aircraft has been the cause of more prolonged maintenance of the F 86K, which was to have been replaced with the F. 104S.

Research on all-purpose operational aircraft, known conventionally as MRCA 75, has been carried out for some time by the technical and logistic services of the Italian Air Force and by other nations interested in the project (Great Britain, West Germany and Holland).

Although the VAK 191/B project has not been completed, progress has been made in experiments with the vertical take-off and landing system. International cooperation in this field has been very successful and uniform planning techniques have been introduced.

Plans are being made for the replacement of C 119 transport aircraft and discussions are now being held as to the exact performance qualities needed.

Steps are being taken to replace current reconnaissance aircraft with the F 104 and the question has been discussed with allied nations. At the moment, available data are being examined for the purpose of deciding whether Italian or foreign aircraft of this category are the most suitable.

In view of the need to modernize squadrons responsible for escort and anti-submarine warfare, the technical branches of the Navy and the Air Force have been examining various projects concerning the replacement of present aircraft with others of greater autonomy and maneuverability. The talks cover the whole question of anti-submarine warfare, the absolute needs at the time and the necessity for choosing only one type of aircraft. A study has been made on flight characteristics and performances of different types of aircraft, and competent authorities have decided that some should be withdrawn from service altogether while trials continue with others.

A number of MB 326 aircraft have been ordered for flying training schools. In fact, training on squadrons and at flying schools was particularly intense in recent years. The Italian Air Force participates in numerous allied exercises, many of them concerned with training in navigation. A mutual aircraft assistance service between Italy, Greece and Turkey has been initiated. Exchanges take place between Italian and allied squadrons and there are frequent naval and amphibious

operations during which Italian aircraft are required to carry out simulated attacks against convoys and give support to landings.

In addition, mention must be made of the Italian Acrobatics Flight, one of the most famous in the world and worthy heir of those that earned such prestige between 1923 and 1960.

The flight, which belongs to the 313th Training Squadron, develops the technique and reactions of pilots. These are posted at intervals from all squadrons according to strict rotation.

Domestic air lines and clubs have benefitted from some recent decisions made by the Air Force, including full cooperation with civil aviation authorities and the training of civilian pilots at service flying schools.

The institution of a "Documentation Center of the History and Science of Flight" is a recent achievement. The Center will house aircraft of historical importance, prototypes, documents and projects relating to the Air Force and its past and other material related to flying. A "Museum of Flight" is also to be opened.

Close relations have been maintained with government departments, particularly with regards to the training of flight crews and pilots for public services. An agreement has been signed with the Ministry of the Interior for the training of helicopter pilots for the National Fire Service, and with the

Ministry of Agriculture for similar purposes.

Technical and professional assistance has been offered to many African states. The Congo has benefitted chiefly from this, for, under an agreement signed in 1964, Italy is helping that state to complete a project which will provide a sound basis for the Congo Air Force. A team of experts has been sent to the Congo for the purpose of giving technical aid, organizing units and their bases, advising as to the technical and logistic support required, planning the growth of the Congolese aviation, planning and organizing a network of flight and navigational aids and a telecommunications system, and arranging the training of pilots and technical personnel. After qualifying at local schools, Congolese pilots are transferred to advanced schools in Italy, while technical staff are offered courses at the Caserta Air Force School.

Officers and N.C.O.'s from such countries as Ghana, Turkey, Venezuela, Spain, Iran, Morocco, Zambia and others, have attended Italian Air Force courses on flying and maintenance of various types of airplanes and helicopters. At the request of the Somali government, an Air Force Medical Commission has been sent to Mogadiscio to assist in training resident medical officers and to issue certificates on the physical and psychological fitness of pilot trainees.

SPECIAL BRANCHES OF THE ITALIAN ARMY

Origins of the Italian Army

After the fall of the Roman Empire, Italy was divided for centuries into small states and principalities, each one of which had its own army. Before the time of Napoleon we cannot speak of an "Italian Army". Napoleon, after sweeping away the old dynasties, set up divisions of his own army, recruiting from all parts of Italy. For the first time, Italians fought under a single banner, the red-white-and-green flag of today. Italian regiments took an active part in most of the Napoleonic war, especially distinguishing themselves in the Russian campaign. The battle of Malo-Jaroslavetz (Oct. 24, 1812) is known in history as the "Battle of the Italians". "The glory of this day is yours," Napoleon said to his Italian army; "not even the Old Guard could have done better".

With the fall of Napoleon the various local princes returned to power. Italy was once more divided into various states, many of them under Austrian domination. Meanwhile, throughout Italy, a great historical movement known as the Risorgimento (Revival) was getting under way. Its aims were the unity, independence and freedom of the whole peninsula. The King of Sardinia, whose reign included Liguria and Piedmont as well, put himself at the head of this movement and in 1861 the Kingdom of Italy came into being. For the first

time in 1400 years Italy was unified and free.

Along with the new kingdom came the first real Italian army. Because unification had been achieved under the leadership of the Kingdom of Sardinia, this army was an enlarged continuation of the Sardinian Army. Even today the names, flags and ceremonies of certain units go back to the former King of Sardinia.

The "Alpini"

The "Alpini" are a branch of the Italian Army specializing in mountain operations. They are named after the Alps, Europe's highest mountains, which form Italy's natural northern border, dividing it from France, Switzerland, Austria and Yugoslavia.

The Italian government decided to establish a special body of men to be assigned to mountain defenses. Subsequently France, Switzerland and Austria created units of the same kind.

The "Alpini" are known as penne nere (Black Feathers) because of the eagle feathers which they wear on their hats. Officers of the rank of Major and above wear a white feather. The wearing of a feather is an old custom among the mountain people of Italy. Like all mountaineers, the "Alpini" are men of few words and of great tenacity. They have a strong esprit de corps, which derives from the way in which they are recruited and trained.

In the Italian Army, in general, an effort is made to mix the draftees from various regions. Italy acquired national unity only in 1861, and military service is conceived as a way of amalgamating and unifying Italians. But the "Alpini" are, in this respect, an exception. They are drawn from either the Alps or the Apennines (the chain of mountains running from the north to the south of the peninsula). Indeed, the original idea, although it is no longer carried out in practice, was to recruit every regiment from a particular province and every battalion from a single valley. The fact that brothers, cousins and schoolmates all belonged to the same unit made for a bond among them.

The nature of mountain warfare requires a long experience of this particular terrain. The "Alpini" have been familiar with the mountains since childhood. They are climbers and skiers, acquainted with the perils of landslides and glaciers, hardened to cold and fatigue. In some cases, the very local character of the units had a tragic aspect. There were instances when an entire Alpine village was left without men, because a certain battalion had been wiped out in combat.

The "Alpini" are not used for mountain fighting alone. Their stamina and training have made them effective soldiers on such far away fronts as the Russian steppes and the North African desert. Their first participation in a major military

operation was during the war in Eritrea in 1896. There, for the first time, but not the last, they wore their feather on a cork helmet.

The First World War (1914-18), in which Italy fought with the Allies, was, where Italy was concerned, a "war of the 'Alpini.'" The Italian front was in the mountains adjacent to Austria. Day after day, both sides battled for the possession of a peak, which was conquered, lost, and then reconquered. In the winter months, the mountains were straddled by trenches. Infantry, artillery, engineers and other troops all fought bravely. But the "Alpini" were always in the front lines, attacking unassailable Austrian positions. The picture of the Alpine soldier with his faithful mule became the symbol of the war of that generation. The battles in which the "Alpini" distinguished themselves in the First World War are too numerous to be listed here. The statistics of their losses speak for themselves. Out of 240,000 men belonging to the Alpine units, 40,000 died and 85,000 were wounded. Even the Austrians said, "Hats off to the 'Alpini'!"

Between the First and Second World Wars, we find the "Alpini" once more in Africa. They were actively engaged in the war with Abyssinia in 1936.

During the Second War, the "Alpini" fought in Africa, Yugoslavia, Greece and Russia, and ended by taking part in the struggle for liberation. In Abyssinia, far from home and with all

supplies blockaded, they defended Italian bases besieged by the British. In the mountains of Yugoslavia and Greece, they fought the type of mountain war they had already fought in 1915-18. And large numbers of them took part in the ill-fated Russian campaign. When Russian tanks advanced over the frozen Don River, the Rumanians and Germans were the first to retreat, leaving the "Alpini" to cover them in the rear.

Today the "Alpini" continue to carry out their special function, with the addition of their own air and artillery units. Their barracks and encampments are concentrated in the northern mountains, for their task is still that of border defense. Their rugged training in mountain-climbing gives them a kind of discipline that they carry through their whole life.

Every Alpine unit has a chorus, and the "Alpini" are famous for their songs. The tempo is slow, like the slugging pace of a mountain-climber, and the strains are often melancholic. The songs are usually anonymous, born of a long march or a sojourn in the trenches, and they form an important category of Italian folk-music.

The merits of the training of the "Alpini" are due largely to the Scuola Militare Alpina in Aosta (Piedmont). Here there are special courses for commanding allied officers to be trained there or to incorporate features of the Italian training with their own.

The "Bersaglieri"

There is a story about the origin of the "Bersaglieri", probably embellished, but indicative of the romantic place they hold in the hearts of the Italian people.

In 1831, Italy was a conglomeration of small states and Turin was the capital of the Kingdom of Sardinia, which included not only this island but also the regions of Piedmont and Liguria, which occupy the northwestern part of the peninsula. The Kingdom of Sardinia had a small but efficient army. Captain Alessandro Lamarmora, who was interested in problems of strategy, had the idea that mass infantry formations were doomed to be mowed down by the heavy guns of the rapidly developing artillery. He wanted to develop a corps of expert marksmen, skilled in individual combat, moving rapidly from one point to another and taking advantage of the terrain to lie in ambush for the enemy troops, confuse them and then attack, with bayonets, at close quarters. He went to study the maneuvers of the Austrian Schützen, the English Rifles, the German Kaiserjäger and other European light-infantry formations and, upon his return, set up a project for the creation of a similar unit in the army of the Kingdom of Sardinia. He thought of a name and uniform in order to set it apart and make it attractive.

The soldiers were to be called Bersaglieri (expert marksmen); they would wear cock feathers on their caps and march,

on parade, with a running step, led by buglers, who would also be running.

Lamarmora's project was turned down by the general staff as the idea of a hothead and might well have been filed and forgotten. But when King Carlo Alberto of Savoy decided, in 1836, to reorganize the army, Lamarmora brought up the project again and was authorized to experiment on a small scale with the creation of two companies of "Bersaglieri". "Two companies and no more," the King admonished him. In June of the same year, two companies were presented to the King for review in Turin and so pleased him that he invited Lamarmora to dinner at his hunting lodge at Stupinigi. Lamarmora gave some orders to his men and got into the royal carriage. The horses trotted through the green countryside while the two men chatted amicably together. When they arrived at the lodge, the King was astounded to find the "Bersaglieri" drawn up in the courtyard. "Two companies, I said, Lamarmora!" he protested. "Your Majesty," Lamarmora answered, "these are the two companies which you reviewed earlier in the day." In other words, the "Bersaglieri" had outpaced the King's horses. Needless to say, the King was so impressed that he allowed Lamarmora to organize as many companies of "Bersaglieri" as he wanted.

The "Bersaglieri" went into combat for the first time in 1848. At this time the Italians, whose country was still di-

vided into small states, began to pursue the aim of creating a united nation and, in the north especially, to shake off Austrian domination. The King of Sardinia led the movement for unification and the "Bersaglieri" covered themselves with glory in the battle of Goito, fought in the Spring of 1848 against the Austrian Uhlans. The movement of revolt ended, however, with an Austrian victory in 1849.

The Kingdom of Sardinia began to seek an alliance with England and France. It sent an expeditionary force, half of which was composed of "Bersaglieri," to fight with them against the Russians in the Crimea War in 1855. On August 18 of that year, the "Bersaglieri," with a bugler sounding the charge, crossed the Chernaja River at the side of the French Zouaves. The Kingdom of Sardinia, by their merit, won English and French sympathy for its movement of liberation.

In 1859 Lombardy was freed. The "Bersaglieri" distinguished themselves at the battle of Magenta on June 4 of that year.

In 1861, the Kingdom of Italy came into being. Italy was free and united. But Rome was still the Pope's domain. When, in 1870, Rome joined the new nation, the "Bersaglieri" were the first to enter the Eternal City.

In 1888 and 1896, the "Bersaglieri" took part in the colonial campaigns in Eritrea.

During the First World War (1914) when Italy was one of the Allies, the Italian front was a semi-circle in the north-eastern part of the country, on the Austrian frontier. The "Bersaglieri" were in the front lines and made a name for themselves on many occasions. One of their number - Enrico Toti - was a particular hero.

Enrico Toti, a railroad worker, had lost a leg in an accident, but he managed to enlist as a cyclist in the "Bersaglieri" and took part in an infantry attack with a crutch under his arm. Although twice hit, he staggered as far as the enemy trenches and, before dying, tossed up his crutch in a last gesture of defiance.

The "Bersaglieri" took part in the Abyssinian war, in which their name is especially linked with the battle of Lake Tana in the spring of 1939.

In the Second World War (1940-45) they fought in Cyrenaica, Greece and Russia. In Montenegro they compassionately allowed five thousand Jews to cross the lines in order to save them from the Nazis. Subsequently they fought alongside the Allies in the struggle for liberation. The battered Italian people wept with joy to see the familiar feathered caps of their beloved "Bersaglieri".

In the army of today the "Bersaglieri" form special fast-moving units. Equipped with armored vehicles, they seem very

different from their predecessors of a hundred years ago. Their new technical training qualifies them to be not only sharpshooters but also to man cannons and machine-guns, to serve as scouts, engineers, radio men and mechanics.

Only in military parades, in which they traditionally bring up the rear, are they immediately recognizable. When they advance, at a running step, with their cap-feathers waving, the onlookers immediately respond to the old romantic glamour.

The "Carabinieri"

Literally the word "Carabiniere" signifies a soldier, on foot or horseback, armed with a type of rifle known as a "carbine." During the seventeenth and eighteenth centuries autonomous regiments of such soldiers came into being in the principal armies of Europe.

The Italian "Carabinieri" originally formed an elite corps set up by Victor Emmanuel I, King of Sardinia, "to watch over public security and to assure the preservation of order and the enforcement of the law in the territories of the royal House of Savoy."

During the wars for independence of the period known as the Risorgimento, the "Carabinieri" were the bodyguards of the King. In 1861, after the unification of Italy, they acquired a nationwide security function. As an elite army corps

they fought in special combat units during the First and Second World Wars and the African campaigns.

Today the "Carabinieri" still have a double function. In time of war, they form front-line combat units and have also special duties behind the lines. In time of peace they form a centralized law-enforcement body and also conduct investigations. A special unit called Corazzieri (Cuirassiers) serve as bodyguards to the President of Italy.

The uniforms most commonly worn by the "Carabinieri" is noteworthy for its high, stiff, bicorn hat, its tailed coat and the red stripe running down the side of the trousers. The dress uniform of the "Corazzieri" consists of white trousers, a cuirass, a helmet with a hanging horse-tail and high boots.

The "Carabinieri" are noted for their horsemanship. Raimondo and Piero d'Inzeo, who have frequently won prizes at the Olympic Games, are "Carabinieri" officers. The "Carabinieri Carousel" is a riding show which attracts wide attention every spring in Rome. The "Carabinieri" have a band also of international reputation.

The "Carabinieri" have lived up at all time to their motto "Faithful Throughout the Centuries". Discipline and devotion to duty are the corps' outstanding characteristics.

The "Lagunari"

The "Lagunari" are the equivalent of the U.S. Marines. Along the Adriatic coast, between the mouth of the Isonzo and

Po rivers, the contrasting action of both the rivers and the sea have, in the course of centuries, formed lagoons that are intersected by narrow strips of land. The coast, which is very irregular, offers some excellent beaches, but there are also many marshes and canals that are constantly changing because of the work of the local inhabitants and the overflowing of the rivers.

This is the type of battle field preferred by the "Lagunari", infantry groups trained to fight on the islands and in the canals and marshes and to thwart any attempts at landing from the sea.

Like the Alpine troops, the "Lagunari" are recruited on a local scale and are generally fishermen, lifeguards, game wardents and the like. Their daily struggle with this particular type of terrain, the secrets and dangers of which are well-known to them, make them excellent soldiers and worthy heirs of those men who, aboard the Venetian galleys, carried the fame of this republic throughout the length and breadth of the Mediterranean and barred Saracen expansion in the Latin world. For this reason, the regiment to which these groups belong was recently named "Regimento Lagunari Serenissima". "Serenissima" is the adjective traditionally applied to Venice.

The "Lagunari" have very old traditions. Some of the earliest records speak about the "Fanti da mar" (Sea Infantry), a militia of the Republic of Venice which garrisoned Venice's

Lido in the 16th century. During the seige of Venice in 1848-49, another militia known as the "Cacciatori del Sile" became famous for its defense of the lagoon. The "Palazzo dei Soldati" (Soldiers' House) where the militia was housed is now the Command of the Regiment and a reminder of the glories of the past.

In 1877, some years after Italian unity, the "Lagunari" again came to the fore, when the 14th Sapper Company was formed for service on the lagoon. This later became a battalion under a bridge-building regiment.

Because of the demand for transport on the lagoon and the rivers, the 8th Regiment was formed during the First World War and the eight companies performed some very valuable service behind the front, particularly in the 3rd Army zone where they were present at the retreat to the Piave and the successive battles that led to the victorious offensive at Vittorio Veneto.

Apart from transport, the Regiment was also responsible for digging new channels, building and handling boats, and taking part in the fighting. Several companies took part in both offensive and defensive actions and received well-earned praise from the High Command.

In the interval between the two wars, the "Lagunari" became a battalion under the 4th Bridge-Building Regiment and were chiefly concerned with technical questions.

At the end of the Second World War, the possibilities of attack from the sea had become an important factor in military strategy. The war itself had demonstrated the importance of amphibious operations, and many countries had already trained highly specialized units for this type of warfare. As a result, and because of defense requirements along the north-east borders, the Venetian lagoon once again became an advanced defense post against possible invasion from the sea.

The "Settore Forze Lagunari" (Lagoon Forces) was instituted in 1951 with the coastal lagoon battalion "Marghera" and the "San Marco" battalion. The "Piave" coastal battalion was added at a later date.

In March 1956, the "San Marco" became the "Isonzo" battalion and all groups were equipped so that they could fight either on land or in the rivers and marshes.

With the adoption of new methods of warfare and the introduction of new strategy, the structure of these battalions was revised. The "Lagoon Forces Command" became "Lagoon Forces Group Command", the battalions became amphibious and the "Armored Support Group" with tanks was added.

Warfare in the localities described is of a special nature, requiring diverse equipment and troops who are both self-supporting and accustomed to independent action.

Each battalion operates with amphibious equipment which, apart

from guaranteeing easy movement on land, along the canals and lagoons, also makes it possible to intervene in coastal defense.

With the addition of an armored battalion (which has replaced the "Armored Support Group") and an increase in fire power, the "Lagunari" regiment is now in a position to undertake land operations similar to those entrusted to motorized infantry.

The variety, power and maneuverability of the regiment, however, would not be sufficient to make this a highly specialized unit were it not for the fact that recruits are very carefully selected and subjected to a high standard of training.

Training courses, in fact, include long marches over marshy ground, swimming and rowing, fording rivers and streams, commando attacks, demolition and sabotage, and individual combat.

Battle training is based on the principle that each man will be employed on difficult terrain, requiring the immediate employment of amphibious equipment during defense operations that demand aggressiveness, boldness, heavy fire power and mobility.

Troops of the "Lagunari" are required to show:

- complete knowledge of the ground over which they are operating;

- complete knowledge of a wide range of weapons and amphibious equipment;

phibious equipment;

- ability to understand and adapt immediately to constantly changing conditions.

These characteristics, combined with high morale, have made the "Serenissima" Regiment a modern, amphibious unit which is dedicated to the defense of one of Italy's frontiers.

Parachute Troops

History

The Parachute Corps, which has become an essential component of all modern armies, was formed in Italy just over thirty years ago.

The first divisions were formed in Tripolitania in 1938 and consisted of volunteers from garrison troops in Libya, at that time an Italian colony, with officers and N.C.O.'s drawn from home units.

The first training school for parachute troops was opened at Castel Benito (Tripoli), the course being exceptionally difficult in view of the special missions that would have to be carried out in the event of war. Two battalions were created, initially known as "airborne infantry", and they performed very well from the beginning of World War II. Unfortunately, the heavy casualties sustained as a result of their being attached to normal infantry regiments resulted in both these battalions being decimated before they could be used as parachute units.

However, during the period in question, a second training school had been opened at Tarquinia (Viterbo), on the mainland, where volunteers from various branches of the Army were accepted.

Troops trained at Tarquinia formed two battalions, one of infantry, the other of Carabinieri. New units quickly followed, so that, by September 1941, the "Folgore" (Lightning) Parachute Division was created, to be followed a year later by the "Nembo" (Nimbus) Division.

At the same time, other special units were being trained, including parachutists specializing in sabotage, air-borne troops drawn from the Italian Air Force, plus the "San Marco" Battalion belonging to the Italian Navy.

The heavy demands of war soon meant that the Tarquinia School could no longer provide sufficient trained men, and a new training camp was opened in the city of Viterbo, of sufficient size to accept a larger number of volunteers.

Although the Parachute Brigade is the youngest of the Army branches, it has a past that is rich in examples of great valor.

Few Italians will forget the operations of the "Folgore" Division in North Africa, for its deeds aroused the admiration of Italy's ally and the recognition of her adversaries. Two airborne regiments (186 and 187) and one artillery regiment (185), belonging to this Division, received several decorations for bravery.

During the war of liberation, traditions were maintained by the "Nembo" Division, which eventually became the "Folgore" Combat Group, consisting of the "Nembo" infantry regiment, and the "San Marco" Battalion (Italian Navy). This group brought new glory to the parachute corps, taking part in numerous battles from the Volturno to the gates of Bologna.

In 1947, when the Italian Army began its post-war re-organization, the headquarters of the Parachute Corps were in Rome. In 1949, these headquarters were transferred to Viterbo, to the very barracks that had once housed the "Nembo" Division. Later, they were again transferred, this time to the present quarters at Pisa and Leghorn, where modern and functional training and living conditions are provided.

Recruits for the parachute Regiments are obtained through volunteers, who are subjected to a very rigid medical examination. Once a volunteer has demonstrated that he possesses the necessary qualities, he is sent to an initial course of physical training and gymnastics. From these, he graduates to lectures and practical demonstrations in the use of the parachute, learning how to automatically control descent, land correctly, etc.

Real airborne training begins with exercises on actual jumping position prior to leaving the aircraft and the manner in which violent tugs can be avoided as the parachute opens.

This is followed by training in the use of the harness to guide descent, and how to land. Exercises are repeated time and time again until all movements are completely automatic. At this stage the recruit is expected to make practice jumps from a tower about 50 feet high; he thus obtains experience of actual jumping conditions and is able to carry out those movements which he will have to do when dropping from an aircraft.

This initial phase is followed by another medical examination, and the successful trainee then begins the second stage, during which he first makes individual jumps and then descends in a group. In the concluding stage, he is dropped with full equipment and given training in jumping at night. The brevet is awarded after six jumps - three normal and three special (1 with full equipment, 1 at night, and 1 entailing a guided descent into a small target area).

Once they have been awarded their brevet, parachute troops begin operational training, under conditions that roughly correspond to those expected in wartime. The majority of these jumps are made at night, for darkness provides a cover under which troops can escape the vigilance of the enemy. Using arms dropped to them by parachute and the heavy weapons with which infantry is equipped, parachutists are invaluable for operating behind enemy lines, disrupting communications, blocking reinforcements, etc.

This, of course, is their chief task. Deep into enemy territory, with limited quantities and types of weapons, they generally fight a numerically superior adversary. They must operate with the utmost speed in order to surprise the enemy and conclude their mission before a proper defense can be organized.

Parachute troops are trained to act on their own initiative, with speed and decision. They are constantly subjected to hard physical training that develops their reactions, enables them to undergo severe fatigue and hardships, and in general gives them complete confidence in themselves and their companions.

Special training is also given in reading maps, using foreign weapons, handling explosives, driving all types of vehicles, hand-to-hand combat; all are abilities with which they must be familiar because of the special tasks assigned to them. Technically speaking, parachute troops may be used for creating small bridgeheads prior to sea-borne invasion and landings, occupation of key positions, attacks on enemy reserves, sabotage, collection of information concerning enemy movements, and assistance to guerrilla groups.

Very often such troops are required to carry out missions in small groups, or even individually, in unfamiliar territory, where they must immediately recognize, destroy or capture special targets or objectives.

Once on the ground, parachute troops are often called upon to face and overcome unexpected situations that are extremely difficult and dangerous. This is the reason for their detailed training and the individual attention that is given to them. Highly qualified instructors provide them with expert knowledge of hand-to-hand fighting, the technique of survival, ability and precision in the use of a wide variety of weapons, and they are taught how to react to the unexpected with lightning speed. Trained as they are, parachute troops are an elite, perfectly aware of the science of modern warfare, physically fit, with excellent morale. They are a special corps that can guarantee a sound defense against any attempt on security and peace.